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AUTHOR Luftig, Jeffrey T.
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ABSTRACT

The study attempts to investigate, examine, and formulate a theory of career development and occupational choice related to those individuals choosing to become public school (K-12) teachers. Three groups of data are presented. The first section consists of a review of the literature pertaining to four theories of career development and occupational choice: (1) personality-oriented, (2) self-conceptual, (3) sociology-based, and (4) trait and factor theories. The theories of Super, Holland, and Miller and Form are discussed briefly to illustrate each contemporary career development approach. Part 2 consists of an investigation of teacher characteristics and the characteristics of the teaching profession as well as a survey of teachers' reasons for their occupational choice. In part 3, this material is reorganized into Blau's conceptual model, which synthesizes all of the data into a theoretical model for the career development and occupational choice of public school teachers. (MW)

Review and Synthesis of the Theory of Occupational Choice Literature With Special Application To Public School Teaching

Jeffrey T. Luftig
Research Fellow
University of Minnesota
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Introduction

The way in which work manifests itself within a society may be referred to as the occupational structure. The present American occupational structure must certainly rank as one of the most complex in history, encompassing over 27,000 different occupations (Dept. of Labor, 1972) making occupational choice an increasingly difficult decision among youth.

Although the many occupations in today's society are extremely diverse, the behavior of individuals within those occupations are quite similar. Whether examining a blue collar occupation, such as carpentry, or a white collar occupation, such as accounting, certain humanistic problems and related issues are almost always found to be present. Job dissatisfaction among workers, for example, is a phenomenon present in every occupational field and contributes (in part) to retention problems, unstable career patterns, strikes, and other occurrences related to worker dissatisfaction (Dept. of HEW, 1973). For many individuals, job dissatisfaction is a result of disillusionment or unhappiness steming from a poor occupational choice.

The occupational choice of the individual is also of concern in terms of recruitment procedures and policies. It has been shown, for example, that people with certain 'types' of characteristics are happier and more successful at certain 'kinds' of work. Certainly, companies or businesses recruiting individuals for entrance into various occupational fields are concerned with identifying those characteristics which they feel to be desireable among their personnel choices. Conversely, individuals choosing an occupational field are usually just as concerned in picking a position in which the characteristics of the required tasks are commensurate with their own needs, interests, and values.

The ramifications and implications related to the occupational choice of the individual are both clear and awesome. Based on a single decision, an individual may form the pattern of his or her entire life. As educators, it is important for us to understand the means by which occupational choices are made, as we frequently help to shape and facilitate much of the data base upon which many youth make their occupationally-related decisions. If we are to gain an understanding of the occupational choices of others, it would seem both natural and essential that we should also closely examine the individuals related to our own profession,by studying the many factors affecting and forming the basis for their occupational choices. Not only will this understanding help us to help others, but it will perhaps also help us to better understand ourselves.

This study will atempt to investigate, examine, and formulate a theory of career development and occupational choice related to those individuals choosing to become public school (K-12) teachers. The strategy for this task will be to generate three groups of data: 1) A review of the literature pertaining to the various schools of thought related to the topic of career development and occupational choice, 2) an investigation of teacher characteristics and the characteristics of the teaching profession, and 3) a formulation of a specialized theory of occupational choice related to those individuals in and entering the teaching profession at the K-12 level.

PART I

Career Development and Occupational Choice

According to a recent study by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (1973), the nature of man and the American society demands that work is a central and dominant activity in life. Findings of this study indicated that work provides the means by which man establishes himself (internally as well as externally) within the psychological, sociological, and economic domains of life in this society. If we accept, at the very least, the hypothesis that the work performed by man is of extreme importance, and if we wish to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to meaningfully aid in the occupational guidance of youth, then it seems essential to question the means by which man determines the type or kind of work he will perform for the majority of his lifetime.

Prior to entering this investigation, however, it is necessary to first establish a series of working definitions for many of the terms which will be utilized throughout this study.

Bailey (1972) suggests that a schematic representation of four closely related terms can serve as a frame of reference for defining many other related concepts, where:

Career > Occupation = Vocation > Job

This representation should be read " career is greater than occupation" which is analagous to " vocation is greater than job ". A *career* should be considered to be both developmental and longitudinal (Bailey, 1972). It is the sequence of positions held throughout a person's life (Super et.al., 1957) where a *position* is considered to be a group of tasks performed by one person consisting of a specific set of role expectations. The major positions occupied by adults and adolescents are those of family member, student, and

worker (Super, 1972). An *occupation* may be considered to be a category or specific activity in the social structuring of work, which may be manifested as a group or series of similar jobs or positions in one or more establishments.

As the concept of a career is developmental in nature, an important concept to identify and define is that of career development. *Career development* is the term used to describe the total accumulation of all behavior and experiences directly and indirectly related to the aforementioned familial, educational, and occupational roles played by each person throughout his/her lifetime (Super, 1972) before, during, and after entry into an occupation(s) (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). Within this career development continuum there exists a more specific and narrow *career pattern* , which is the sequence of changes in occupational field or level made by an individual during his working life (Super et. al., 1957). It should be noted at this point that career development is frequently used interchangeably with the term *vocational development*. Although these two terms are frequently considered to have the same meaning (Herr & Cramer, 1972) there is a difference between the two concepts which is worth identifying. Vocational development is concerned with the behaviors and experiences of the individual directly related to work (as manifested in the occupational roles played by the individual) , and usually stresses the psychology and sociology of occupations. Career development, on the other hand, takes into account a broader spectrum of concerns (as well as roles/positions) such as the development of the self concept, career planning, decision-making, vocational behavior, as well as the formation of attitudes, values, concepts, and skills (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). In this way, career development is conceptually much broader than vocational development.

As can readily be seen by surveying each of the proposed definitions,

occupational choice is but one part of the total career and vocational development of an individual. The career development process experienced by an individual forms the primary basis for the occupational choice which he or she will make, as well as continuing to form the basis for future occupationally-related decisions throughout the individual's lifetime. The discussion of occupational choice, therefore, must begin with a discussion of theories of career development.

The present theories of career development trace their roots to the beginning of the present century with the birth of the vocational guidance movement (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). The director of the first vocational guidance center, Frank Parsons, is usually credited for generating the first theory of occupational choice and guidance. Parsons (1909) felt that the occupational choice of the individual was made through a scientific, three phase process: 1) study and understanding of self, 2) study of the requirements of occupations, and 3) 'true reasoning' about the relationships between the facts and data obtained. This theory is frequently referred to as the *Trait or Trait and Factor Theory;* as it essentially consisted of a theoretical matching process between the individual and his/her occupational options. Proponents of the trait and factor theory during this period (1900-Late 1940's) generally felt that all occupations had certain task requirements which could be classified according to the level of intelligence and abilities which workers performing the specific tasks had to be capable of fulfilling. The individual's occupational choice, therefore, was based on an assessment of his own intelligence, interests, abilities, and aptitudes (self-understanding); an assessment of the specific occupational requirements under consideration; and a logical evaluation ('true reasoning') of whether his/her intelligence and abilities were of a level and/or type which would be sufficient to enable him/her to perform the required job tasks and duties. Based on this theory, guidance personnel seeking to help

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facilitate intelligent occupational decisions on the part of youth assumed that the best method which could be utilized for guiding the youth would be to apply and analyze tests gauged to measure general intelligence, interests, and aptitudes. Through the utilization of these types of tests (e.g. I.Q., GATB, etc.) it was reasoned that the 'true reasoning' stage of evaluation would be based on valid, reliable information and would be more easily facilitated and meaningful. An additional factor frequently taken into consideration within this guidance/choice process was the status of the socioeconomic level of the youth's family.

In summary, the trait and factor theory of occupational choice/guidance was a testimonial to the widespread acceptance of simply 'matching' the abilities and interests of youths with occupational requirements and trends (Crites, 1965).

The trait and factor theory was utilized extensively by vocational guidance personnel from 1910 through the 1950's. During the early and middle 1950's, however, there was growing concern that severe deficiencies existed in both theory and practice (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). In 1955, for example, Thorndike and Hagan (1959) conducted a study of 10,000 men who had been given a battery of aptitude tests in 1953. The analysis of the aptitude test scores were compared with the educational and vocational histories of the men, with significant and startling results. Thorndike and Hagan (1959) found that:

1) The policy of using tests to guide individuals into a single or set of occupations was not valid, since the aptitude tests were not found to be reliable predictors of eventual occupational position/success.

2) Individuals entered occupations for a great and diverse

number of reasons, many of which were unrelated to their abilities, intelligence, and aptitudes. As this was found to be the case, and since general intelligence and aptitude tests did not inventory these other components of behavior, these tests were found to be inappropriate for use as guidance instruments (especially when used exclusively) and as predictors of future occupational success/position.

Many studies of this type were conducted during this era (1945-1955, approx.) and all generally reflected similar findings. As a result, alternative theories of vocational development and occupational choice began to emerge in the early 1950's (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). Proponents of the emerging theories continued to develop, test, evaluate, and refine their theories through the 1960's, to the point where four distinct approaches related to career development and occupational choice had been established (Osipow, 1968).

Before outlining and discussing the four categories of present-day career development theories, it is important to note that although they differ in emphasis, they all revolve around a common body of accepted data. To understand this assertion, one must remember that these theories evolved as a reaction to the inadequecy of the trait and factor approach, which considered only a limited number of factors (intelligence, aptitudes, etc.) related to vocational development. The new theories which emerged from that era are different from the trait and factor approach in that they take into account a greater number and diversity of related factors; they differ from each other in the aspect of which of the factors are considered to be the primary *determinants* (those factors considered to play a dominant role) of career development. The factors affecting the career development of the individual are generally classified as follows (with no implied indices as to relative importance) :

A. The Concepts of Roles and the Self

I. Roles: those behaviors which are expected/ required by various social, familial, and occupational positions (Sarbin, 1954).

II. Self-Concept: the inner thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and values; and the experiences, expectations, attitudes, values, and opinions which are externally derived (Barry & Wolfe, 1962). In short, the self-concept includes

a. The person's own intimate view of himself , or his *self-image*

b. his/her perception of how others view him, or his idea of his *social self*

c. his/her perception of the person he would like to be, or his *ideal self*

B. Personal Factors

Intelligence

Special Aptitudes

Interests

Personality

Attitudes and Values

(Super, et.al.,1957)

C. Situational Factors

Parental Socioeconomic Status

Religious Background

Atmosphere of Home

Parental Attitudes toward the Individual & Education

General Economic Situation

General International Situation

(Super, et.al., 1957)

Based on the different interpretations of the importance of these various factors as determinants, the four classifications of career development and occupational choice theory generally conform to the following configuration (Osipow, 1968) :

I. Personality-Oriented Theories of Career Development

These theories commonly utilize the underlying hypothesis that people select occupations with potential for satisfying their needs as well as meeting the requirements established by their personality configurations A corollary hypothesis is that exposure to an occupation modifies the personality characteristics of the worker so that, for example, construction workers all eventually exhibit personality characteristics. Proponents of this type of theory include Holland, Roe, Small, and Schaffer.

II. Self-Conceptual Theories of Career Development

These theories generally encompass three central theses:

1) individuals develop more clearly defined self-concepts as they grow older
2) people develop perceptions of the world of work which they subsequently compare with their self-image in attempting to make career-related decisions, and
3) the eventual occupational decisions are based on the similarity

of the individual's self-concept and the vocational concept of the chosen occupation.

Proponents of this type of theory include Super, Ginzberg, and Rodgers.

III. Sociology-Based Theories of Career Development

These theories are often referred to as *accident or reality theories* of occupational choice. The central hypothesis of these theories is that circumstances beyond the control of the individual (situational factors) contribute significantly to the occupational choice; and that the principal task confronting all individuals is the development of techniques to learn to effectively cope with his/her environment.

Advocates of this type of theory include Miller and Form, Caplow, and Hollingshead.

IV. Trait and Factor Theories

Contemporary trait and factor theories have, for the most part, been absorbed into other approaches of vocational counseling and choice. Very few vocational counseling practitioners today are trait and factor adherents, although those who are typically are concerned with a broader base of determinants and factors that were utilized in the early 1900's.

To better illustrate each contemporary career development approach (with the exception of the trait and factor theory), and to devise a model with which to classify determinants and characteristics related to the career development and occupational choice of public school teachers, the theories of Donald Super, John Holland, And Miller and Form will be briefly discussed.

Holland's Theory of Occupational Choice

John Holland's theory of occupational choice, frequently referred to as the *Career Typology Theory*, is a personality-based approach. Basically, the theory assumes that an individual, at the time of his occupational choice, is a product of the interaction of his particular heredity with the forces and factors related to family, culture, peers, and general environment (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). Out of this total interactive experience, each individual develops a hierarchy of preferred methods for dealing with environmental tasks, which is referred to as the individual's *adjustive or personality orientation* (Osipow, 1968). Additionally, Holland (1959) asserts that the world work consists of *occupational environments*, each of which is commensurate with one of the personality orientations in terms of work requirements and characteristics. The individual making an occupational choice, therefore, 'searches out' those occupations which contain the types of environments which will satisfy his personal hierarchy of adjustive orientation (Holland, 1959). Table I (Bailey & Stadt, 1973) briefly illustrates the personality orientations and occupational environments developed by Holland.

TABLE I

A SUMMARY OF HOLLAND'S (1959, 1966) PERSONALITY TYPES AND ENVIRONMENTAL MODELS

Personality Types * (Modal Personal Orientation)		Environmental Models * (Occupational Environments)	
Type	**Description**	**Type**	**Typical Occupations**
Realistic (Motoric)	Enjoys activities requiring physical strength; aggressive; good motor organization; lacks verbal and interpersonal skills; prefers concrete to abstract problems; unsociable; etc.	Realistic (Motoric)	Laborers, machine operators, aviators, farmers, truck drivers, carpenters, etc.
Intellectual	Task oriented, "thinks through" problems; attempts to organize and understand the world; enjoys ambiguous work tasks and intraceptive activities; abstract orientation, etc.	Intellectual	Physicist, anthropologist, chemist, mathematician, biologist, etc.
Social (Supportive)	Prefers teaching or therapeutic roles; likes a safe setting; possesses verbal and interpersonal skills; socially oriented; accepting of feminine impulses; etc.	Social (Supportive)	Clinical psychologist, counselor, foreign missionary, teacher, etc.
Conventional (Conforming)	Performs structured verbal and numerical activities and subordinate roles; achieves goals through conformity.	Conventional (Conforming)	Cashier, statistician, bookkeeper, administrative assistant, post office clerk, etc.
Enterprising (Persuasive)	Prefers verbal skills in situations which provide opportunities for dominating, selling, or leading others	Enterprising (Persuasive)	Car salesman, auctioneer, politician, master of ceremonies, buyer, etc.
Artistic (Esthetic)	Prefers indirect personal relationships; prefers dealing with environmental problems through self-expression in artistic media.	Artistic (Esthetic)	Poet, novelist, musician, sculptor, playwright, composer, stage director, etc.

*Terms within parentheses denote earlier nomenclature

SOURCE: J. Zaccaria, *Theories of Occupational Choice and Vocational Development* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1970, p 44.

Holland's (1959) hypotheses related to the occupational choice process may be outlined as follows:

1. The person directs himself toward the occupational classification for which his/her development has impelled him by selecting the occupation at the head of his particular hierarchy of classification.

2. Within a major classification of occupations, the person's selection of an occupation is a function of his self-evaluation and his ability at performing adequately in his chosen environment.

3. Both of the processes identified in #1 and #2 are affected by personal factors, knowledge of occupations, and understanding of general environmental factors.

4. Persons with inaccurate or limited self-knowledge make inadequate choices more frequently than persons with accurate self-knowledge.

One important point which should be presented is that Holland does not imply that an individual with an artistic personality orientation, for example, will always choose a strictly artistically-related occupation. He does, however, imply that characteristics exist between all of these occupational occupational environments, to varying degrees, and that an individual may choose an occupation with a combination of characteristics reflecting his/her personal orientation. For example, Holland classifies a Dental Assistant as being an occupation combining social, artistic, and investigative characteristics (identified as SAI) with social characteristics most prominant, followed by artistic, followed by investigative.

This system of classification denotes two concepts:

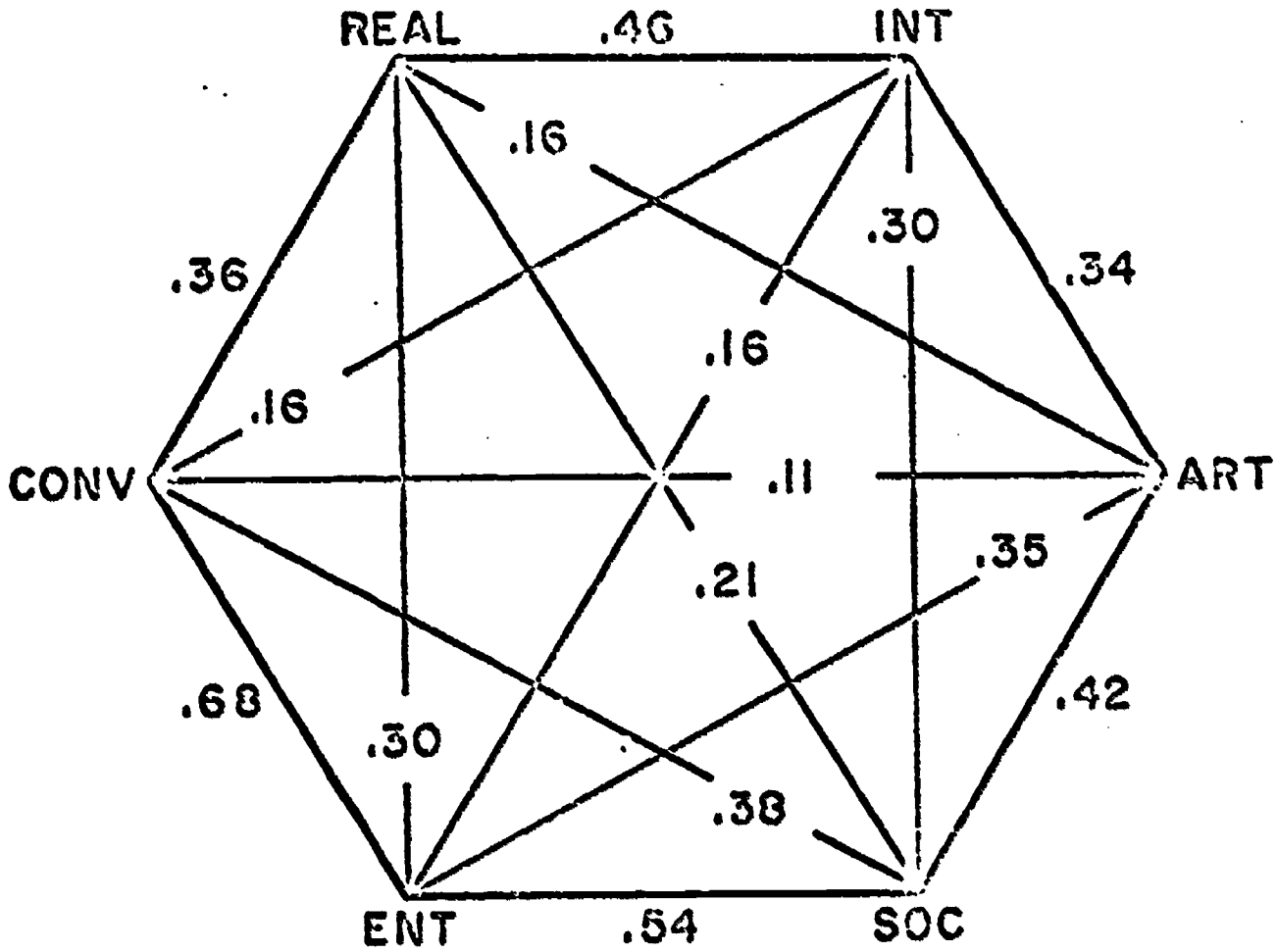
Occupational environments share a number of common characteristics; individuals with any of the common matching personality orientations are likely to choose the occupation in question.For example, the occupation of Dental Assistant might be chosen by individuals reflecting primarily social, artistic,

or investigative personality orientations.

As a result of an extensive (N=779) study conducted in 1970 as an attempt to refine the intra-class relationships, Holland was able to establish a hexagonal model for reflecting the general relationships and degree of commonalities between the occupational environments (Figure 1) :

Figure 1

A Hexagonal Model for Interpretating Inter- and Intra-Class Relationships



Contemoporary uses of Holland's career typology theory have been generally concentrated in guidance activities, where Holland's Occupational Inventory instrument (based on his theory) has been used to help youth become exposed to various sets of career/occupational options.

Super's Theory of Career Development

Super's theory of career development and occupational choice is an example of the self-conceptual, developmental type of approach. His theory is the approach which has probably received the most attention, initiated the most research, been the most conceptually comprehensive, and most influenced the field of vocational psychology (Herr & Cramer, 1973).

Super first began formulating his theory of vocational development* in 1953, when he identified the main elements of his approach as including individual differences, occupational multi-potentiality of each person, ability patterns, career patterns, parental identification, life stages, job satisfaction, work as a way of life, and the development of the self-concept (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). He then organized all of the diverse elements identified into ten *propositions* for a theory related to career development (Super, 1953):

* When Super first began working on his theory, he utilized the term 'vocational development' to describe the concept of career development, as the term 'career development' had not yet been introduced

A Theory of Vocational Development

1. People differ in their abilities, interests, and personalities.
2. They are qualified, by virtue of these characteristics, each for a number of occupations.
3. Each of these occupations requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests, and personality traits, with tolerances wide enough, however, to allow both some varity of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.
4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work, and hence their self-concepts, change with time and experience (although self-concepts are generally fairly stable from late adolescence until late maturity), making choice and adjustment a continuous process.
5. This process may be summed up in a series of life stages characterized as those of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline, and these stages may in turn be subdivided into (*a*) the fantasy, tentative, and realistic phases of the exploratory stage, and (*b*) the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage.
6. The nature of the career pattern (that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs) is determined by the individual's parental socioeconomic level, mental ability, and personality characteristics, and by the opportunities to which he is exposed.
7. Development through life stages can be guided, partly by facilitating the process of maturation of abilities and interests, and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of the self-concept.
8. The process of vocational development is essentially that of developing and implementing a self-concept: it is a compromise process in which the self-concept is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes, neural and endocrine makeup, opportunity to play various roles, and evaluations of the extent to which the results of role playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows.
9. The process of compromise between individual and social factors, between self-concept and reality, is one of role playing, whether the role is played in fantasy, in the counseling interview, or in real life activities such as school classes, clubs, part-time work, and entry jobs.
10. Work satisfactions and life satisfactions depend upon the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits, and values; they depend upon his establishment in a type of work, a role which his growth and exploratory experiences have led him to consider congenial and appropriate.

Source: From: D. E. Super, "A theory of vocational development," *American Psychologist*, Volume No. 8, 1953, pp. 189–19 Copyright 1953 by the American Psychological Association, and reproduced by permission.

In order to test and refine his theoretical model (set of propositions) Super in 1951 began a long term Career Pattern Study. Based on his ten propositions as well as findings evolving from this research study, Super generated a series of five life stages (Super, 1957). According to Super, the stages encompass a description of the vocational behaviors which generally occur within each individual's life stage periods.

Super's Life Stages (From Bailey & Stadt, 1973)

Growth Stage; (Birth-14) Self-concept develops through identification with key figures in family and peer group; needs and fantasy dominate early in this stage, interest and capacity become more important in the latter part of this stage with increasing social participation and reality testing. The sub-stages of this stage are:

Fantasy	4-10
Interest	11-12
Capacity	13-14

Exploration Stage; (Age 15-24) Self-examination, role tryout, and occupational exploration takes place in leisure activities, the school, and through part-time work. Sub-stages of this stage are:

Tentative	15-17
Transition	18-21
Trial	22-24

Establishment Stage; (Age 25-44) After choosing an appropriate field of endeavor, effort is put forth to establish a permanent place within it. Substages of this stage are:

Trial	25-30	(May or may not occur)
Stabilization	31-44	

Maintenance Stage; (Age 45-64) Having established a position within the world of work, the concern is now to hold it, with continuation along established lines.

Decline Stage; (Age 65 on) Work activity changes and eventually ceases. New roles are developed, first of selective participant, then that of observer. Substages of this stage are:

Deceleration	65-70
Retirement	71 on

The importance of the life stage model was that it furnished a research base for two major concepts (Bailey & Stadt, 1973):

1. Vocational development is an ongoing, continuous, generally irreversible process, and
2. It is an orderly, patterned process.

By 1963, Super had developed a theoretical model for the process by which career - related decisions are made throughout the life stages. The series of activities which allow each individual to make these decisions are referred to as *Vocational Development Tasks*, and each task encompasses a specific set of attitudes and behaviors (Osipow, 1968) :

Attitudes and Behaviors Relevant to Vocational Developmental Tasks

1. Crystallization (14–18)
   a. awareness of the need to crystallize
   b. use of resources
   c. awareness of factors to consider
   d. awareness of contingencies which may affect goals
   e. differentiation of interests and values
   f. awareness of present-future relationships
   g. formulation of a generalized preference
   h. consistency of preference
   i. possession of information concerning the preferred occupation
   j. planning for the preferred occupation
   k. wisdom of the vocational preference
2. Specification (18–21)
   a. awareness of the need to specify
   b. use of resources in specification
   c. awareness of factors to consider
   d. awareness of contingencies which may affect goals
   e. differentiation of interests and values
   f. awareness of present-future relationships
   g. specification of a vocational preference
   h. consistency of preference
   i. possession of information concerning the preferred occupation
   j. planning for the preferred occupation
   k. wisdom of the vocational preference
   l. confidence in a specific preference
3. Implementation (21–24)
   a. awareness of the need to implement preference
   b. planning to implement preference
   c. executing plans to qualify for entry
   d. obtaining an entry job
4. Stabilization (25–35)
   a. awareness of the need to stabilize
   b. planning for stabilization
   c. becoming qualified for a stable regular job or accepting the inevitability of instability
   d. obtaining a stable regular job or acting on resignation to instability
5. Consolidation (35 plus)
   a. awareness of the need to consolidate an advance
   b. possession of information as to how to consolidate and advance
   c. planning for consolidation and advancement
   d. executing consolidation and advancement plans

Source: From D. E. Super, "Vocational development in adolescence and early childhood: tasks and behaviors," pp. 84, 88, 90, 91. In Super, D. E., Starishevsky, R., Matlin, N., and Jordaan, J. P., *Career development: self-concept theory*, New York, College Entrance Examination Board, 1963. Copyright 1963 by CEEB and reproduced by permission.

In summary, based on his previous research, Super conceives of career development as a continuous process of developing and implementing a self-concept with satisfaction to self and benefit to society. The underlying thesis of this theory is that *the individual chooses occupations whose characteristics will allow him to function in a role that is consistent with his self-concept, where the self-concept itself is a factor of the individual's developmental history* (Herr, 1970).

Miller and Form's Theory of Career Development

Miller and Form's theory of career development and occupational choice revolves around three major concepts:

1. Vocational development life stages
2. The development of career patterns
3. The socialization process

According to Mathews and Drabick (1969), the socialization process is a structural force which, among other things, helps to develop occupational interest in youth. Exposure to various socialization factors is expected to produce diverse occupational aspirations and to generate various motivations for selected occupations. Additionally, the socialization process varies for men and women, due to membership in different types of inter-personal relationship groups.

Miller and Form feel that the socialization process may be traced through five life stages:

I. *Preparatory — Birth — Age 14*
Pre-school
Socialization, work role taking within the home, modeling after parents.
Experience with work tasks in the home is acquired, roots of work habits developed.
In-school
Further socialization. Character, personality and values emerge. Secondary work models observed.

II. *Initial — 14 — End of formal or full-time education*
Dependence upon home is weakened. Indoctrination of work values of responsibility, willingness to work hard, get along with people, handle money, etc.
Adjust aspiration to realistic level. Acquire technical and social skills relevant to job performance. Adjust to a worker culture.

III. *Trial — From school leaving — Age 34*
Select permanently a satisfying job. Develop a career orientation: ambitious, responsive, fulfilled, confused, frustrated, or defeated.

IV. *Stable — 35 to retirement*
Settling down in an occupation. Establishing social roots in work plant and community. Progress to highest achievement level attainable.

V. *Retired — Retirement to death*
Adjust to non-work. Shift from work to home interests, change in status, change in friendship patterns, security, and health.

Adapted by the editor from Chapters 15-20 of D. C. Miller and W. H. Form, *Industrial Sociology*, New York: Harper and Bros., 1951.

At the heart of the life stage development approach is the configuration of the career pattern of the individual as affected by various social factors, usually not within the control of the individual. After studying the work histories of adults at different occupational levels, Miller and Form were able to identify several types of career patterns (Super, 1957):

1. Stable : characterized by comparatively early achievement of stability (as in the case of many professional workers and some skilled and clerical workers)

2. Conventional : characterized by a series of trial jobs culminating in a stable job (as in the case of many skilled and clerical workers)

3. Unstable : characterized by trial jobs, then temporary stability, followed by a return to earlier instability (as in the case of many semiskilled and some clerical workers)

4. Multiple Trial : characterized by an unbroken series of trial jobs (as in the case of many domestic-service workers and semiskilled workers)

Aside from the individual's psychological and physical characteristics, Miller and Form feel the factors most affecting the socialization process might fall into categories such as:

Socioeconomic status of parents and self
Father's and Mother's job
Parental aspirations
Number of siblings
Geographic location
Economic conditions of environment
Characteristics of the era, and
Other non predictable factors, such as:
- Accidents
- Illness
- Death of important others
- Unanticipated opportunities
- Unanticipated liabilities

Sociology-based theories such as those suggested by Miller and Form generally differ slightly as to identification of those factors which constitute primary determinants of the socialization process.

One factor which is generally thought to be significant is the Family and Social Class (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). Jensen and Kirchner (1955) found that sons tend to follow the general type and level of their father's occupations, especially within professional occupations. Additionally, it was found that when sons did not follow in the type and level of their father's occupation, they tended to enter occupations at a level above those of their fathers. Youmans (1954) found that the father's occupational level (in terms of social stratification) was the most important social factor in senior (high school) boy's occupational expectations.

Another social factor which is considered to sigrificantly affect occupational choice is the environment, in terms of whether the individual comes from a rural or urban background. Middleton & Grigg (1959), for example, found that high school students from urban environments tended to

express greater occupational and educational aspirations than high school students from rural areas.

Other factors found to have significant effects on occupational choice were race, and sex. Mathews and Drabick (1969) found that youths of different races chose occupations ostensibly for different reasons (reflecting the result of different socialization processes). Additionally, dramatic differences were also discovered in the reasons given for occupational choice among men and women. A partial summary of their findings is presented in Tables II and III.

TABLE 2. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF REASONS GIVEN BY NORTH CAROLINA HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS FOR ENTERING EXPECTED OCCUPATIONS, BY RACE

Reasons	White (N=586)	Negro (N=399)
General interest	78.2	65.7
Reward	11.1	9.3
Altruism	6.1	23.6
Other	4.6	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF REASONS GIVEN BY NORTH CAROLINA HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS FOR ENTERING EXPECTED OCCUPATIONS, BY SEX

Reasons	Male (N=438)	Female (N=547)
General interest	76.0	70.8
Reward	15.3	6.4
Altruism	5.0	19.7
Other	3.7	3.1
Total	100.0	100.0

One of the factors related to occupational choice which many feel has significant meaning is that of occupational status or prestige. Although this factor differs from occupational group to occupational group, this factor is generally felt to have a great deal of importance. Tseng and Carter (1970), for example, found when testing the occupational aspirations and choices of adolescent boys that there existed a significant degree of correlation ($r=.38$; $p<.01$) between the skill levels required of the expressed occupational choice and the prestige of the occupation chosen. Similar studies show that the prestige of various occupations frequently are a determinant of those choosing the occupation as part of their career.

A Theoretical Model of Occupational Choice

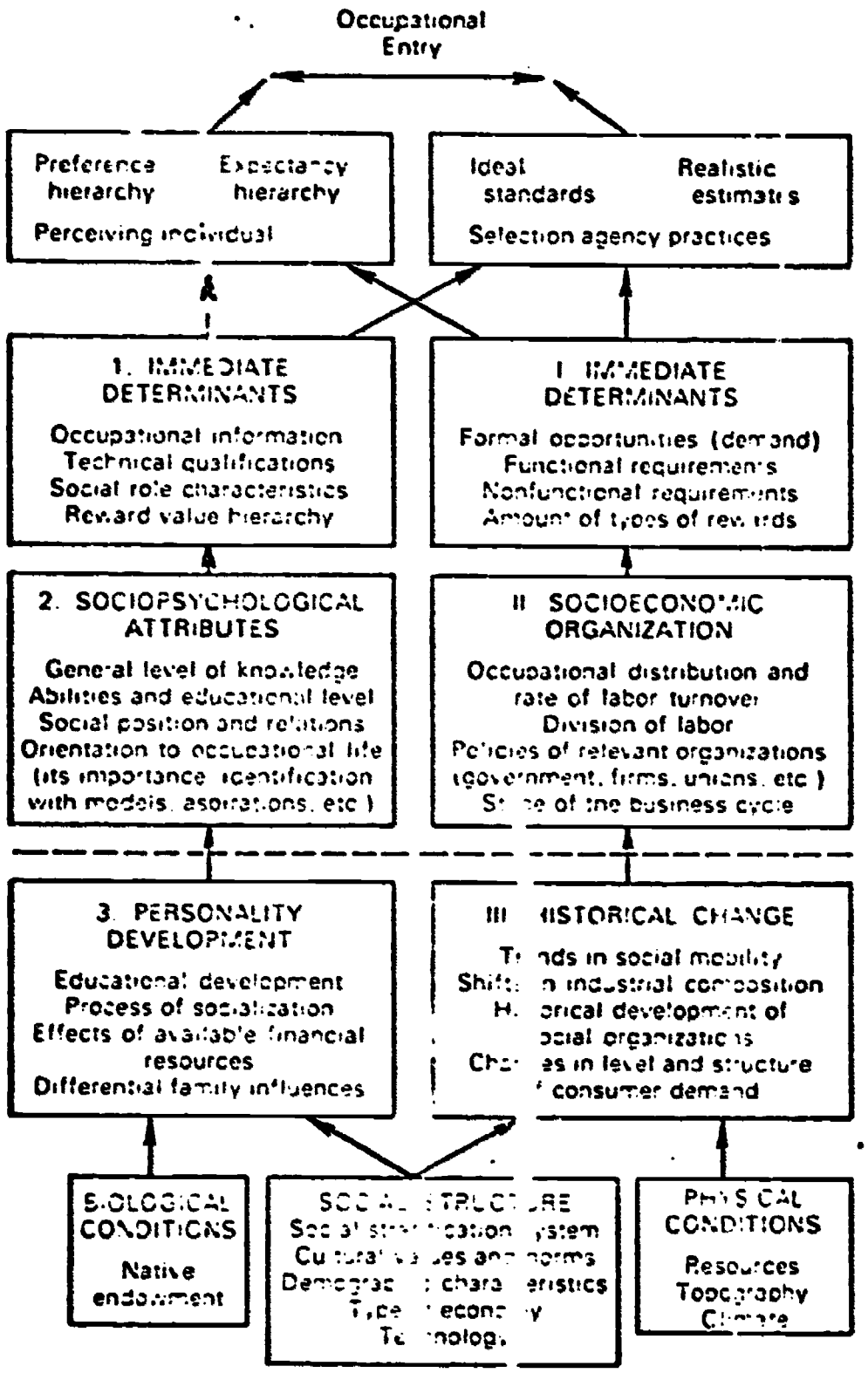
It is necessary, due to the nature of this study, to utilize some type of model to organize all factors and determinants related to teachers and the teaching occupation (Part II) into a comprehensive framework.

To choose between any of the theoretical models presented to this point for this purpose would be inappropriate, as adequate evidence exists to support each of the theories/approaches to occupational choice.

Peter Blau (1956) however, perhaps recognizing this dilemna, has developed a conceptual framework for occupational choice which integrates various components of all of these approaches. As this framework is highly applicable to the purposes of this study, a slightly modified form of this framework (Figure II) will ultimately be utilized in Part III as a tool for combining all of the data generated within Parts I and II.

FIGURE II

RELATIONSHIP OF PROCESS OF CHOICE AND PROCESS OF SELECTION



SOURCE Peter M. Blau et al., "Occupational Choice: a Conceptual Framework," *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 1956, 9(4), p. 534.

PART II

The purpose of this section will be to organize all of the research and data related to the characteristics of 1) public school teachers, and 2) public school teaching (as an occupation) into a configuration commensurate with the factors identified as important in the career development continuums presented in part I. Psychological and sociological characteristics of teachers will be identified, as well as a review of the personal characteristics of the 'average' public school teacher (in the 1970's). Additionally, data related to reasons given by teachers for their occupational choice will be surveyed. This material will then be reorganized into Blau's conceptual model (Part III), synthesizing all of the data into a theoretical model for the career development and occupational choice of public school teachers.

Characteristics of Teachers

Academic Aptitude/Achievement

A common belief related to the teaching profession is that teaching has generally attracted college students of mediocre mental ability. Although many feel this situation is changing, the results of several studies tend to support this assertion (Stinnett, 1968). In a study conducted by the Educational Testing Service (1951) utilizing the Selective Service College Qualification Test, the evidence was not extremely encouraging for educators:

Classification	% Passing
Engineering	68
Physical Science & Math	64
Humanities	52
Education	27

A more comprehensive study conducted by Burnett and MacMinn (1966) at Ohio State tended to reflect the same order of findings; education students were found to (significantly) surpass non-education students on only 3 of 10 measures of academic aptitude and achievement:

SUMMARY TABLE

Comparison of Education and Non-Education Students on Five Measures of Academic Aptitude and Achievement

Comparison	Z	p (two-tail)	Group with higher mean
1. OSPE Scores for Freshmen Enrolled Autumn 1962	6.13	<.00001	Non-education
2. OSU Mathematics Test Scores for Freshmen Enrolled Autumn 1962	9.50	<.000001	Non-education
3. OSU English Placement Test Scores for Freshmen Enrolled Autumn 1962	2.06	<.05	Education
4. American College Test Scores for Freshmen Enrolled Autumn 1962	13.49	<.000001	Non-education
5. OSPE Scores for Juniors Beginning the Autumn Quarter 1962	4.81	<.00001	Non-education
6. OSU Mathematics Test Scores for Juniors Beginning the Autumn Quarter 1962	8.86	< .00001	Non-education
7. OSU English Placement Test Scores for Juniors Beginning the Autumn Quarter 1962	0.13	NS	Education
8. Cumulative Point Hour Ratio for Juniors Beginning the Autumn Quarter 1963	2.75	<.006	Education
9. OSPE Scores for Graduating Seniors June 1963	2.64	<.0	Non-education
10. Cumulative Point Hour Ratio for Graduating Seniors, June 1963	2.00	<.0	Education

In summary, North (1958) pointed out that although there is some evidence to suggest that teacher education students in certain colleges that maintain high admission standards compare favorably with non-education students, the field of education (as a whole) is not successfully competing with other professions in recruiting the high caliber of personnel which it needs and which is available.

Personality Orientations of Teachers

One of the most important psychological factors concerning career development and occupational choice indentified in Part I was the personality orientation of the individual (especially in Holland's approach).

Holland (1970) as a result of a long-term study, classifies an individual choosing public school teaching at the elementary level for his/her occupation as SAI (Social, Artistic, Investigative) and an individual choosing to teach at the secondary level for his/her occupation as SAE (Social, Artistic, Enterprising). Tne primary characteristic of the average teacher's personality mode, therefore, is the social (or supportive) aspect. According to Holland's model, the socially oriented individual prefers theraputic roles, likes a safe setting, possesses verbal and interpersonal skills, and is generally socially oriented.

Various studies conducted related to the personality orientations of teachers has generated data commensurate with Holland's theoretical personality classifications.

Hollander and Parker (1969), in a study examining occupational stereotypes and their relationships to vocational choice, found that teachers were typically characterized as having a need configuration of high affiliation and high exhibition tendencies.

Krause(1970), in a study of work values as related to Holland's six personality orientations, found that teachers tended to most value the social rewards of teaching.

Levine (1970), attempting to generate a tentative psychological description of the American teacher, was able to construct a personality description for male and female public school teachers. The male teachers were found to have a tendency to exhibit an authortarian and rigid personality.

Additionally, the male teachers was found to be (as oppossed to men in other professional occupational groups) more verbally fluent, outgoing, self-centered, opinionated, patient, and helpful (in terms of helping others).

Female teachers were inclined to be more self-confident, self-assured, verbally fluent, cooperative, conventional, and in need of greater supervision than women in other professional occupational groups.

In summary, these studies (as well as others reviewed) tend to support Holland's general classification and personality orientations for male and female teachers.

Occupational Prestige

As previously shown, the occupational prestige (or status) of various occupations is a major determinant in the individual's choice of the' occupation in question. It is important to note, however, that this is not necessarily the case for all occupations. There is evidence that although the prestige of public school teaching is not high, the relatively low status is of little (if any) concern to those choosing teaching for their occupation. Moffatt (1972) and others, for example, found that of all the factors related to the choice of the teaching profession, occupational status was not even mentioned by teachers responding to a survey-type instrument. This fact is not suprising, however, considering the typical personality orientation of teachers is the social orientation. Krause (1970), in a study of work values, found that the group scoring lowest in perceiving occupational status as important was the social group (counselors, teachers, medical-related occupations, etc.). It is also important to note that in a study of the correlates of the perception of occupational prestige, Tseng and Rhodes (1973) found there was no significant

difference in the perception of occupational prestige between men and women.

Although establishing that occupational status is of relatively low importance to those individuals choosing to teach in the public schools, it may be of some value (in terms of establishing a frame of reference) to present a listing of 'typical' occupations ranked according to status as perceived by the general public. The most extensive study conducted along these lines was generated by two sociologists, North and Hatt (Shartle, 1965). The results of their study are presented in the following table. Note that prestige of public school teachers and instructors was ranked in the 34th and 36th positions (the difference between the two positions was not included in the related available data).

NORTH-HATT SCALE

Occupations Ranked According to Prestige[27]
(based on 2,920 interviews)

Occupational Title	*Average Score*	*Rank*
U. S. Supreme Court Justice	96	1
Physician	93	2.5
State Governor	93	2.5
Cabinet member in the federal government	92	4.5
Diplomat in the U. S. Foreign Service	92	4.5
Mayor of a large city	90	6
College professor	89	8
Scientist	89	8
United States Representative in Congress	89	8
Banker	88	10.5
Government scientist	88	10.5
County judge	87	13
Head of a department in a state government	87	13
Minister	87	13
Architect	86	18
Chemist	86	18
Dentist	86	18
Lawyer	86	18
Member of the board of directors of a large corporation	86	18
Nuclear physicist	86	18
Priest	86	18
Psychologist	85	22
Civil engineer	84	23
Airline pilot	83	24.5
Artist who paints pictures that are exhibited in galleries	83	24.5
Owner of factory that employs about 100 people	82	26.5
Sociologist	82	26.5
Accountant for a large business	81	29
Biologist	81	29
Musician in a symphony orchestra	81	29
Author of novels	80	31.5
Captain in the regular army	80	31.5
Building contractor	79	34
Economist	79	34
Instructor in the public schools	79	34
Public school teacher	78	36
County Agricultural Agent	77	37.5
Railroad engineer	77	37.5
Farm owner and operator	76	39
Official of an international labor union	75	40.5
Radio announcer	75	40.5
Newspaper columnist	74	42.5
Owner-operator of a printing shop	74	42.5

[27] Reproduced by permission of Cecil C. North, The Ohio State University and Paul K. Hatt, Northwestern University.

Occupational Title	*Average Score*	*Rank*
Electrician	73	45
Trained machinist	73	45
Welfare worker for a city government	73	45
Undertaker	72	47
Reporter on a daily newspaper	71	48
Manager of a small store in a city	69	49
Bookkeeper	68	51.5
Insurance agent	68	51.5
Tenant farmer—one who owns livestock and machinery and manages the farm	68	51.5
Traveling salesman for a wholesale concern	68	51.5
Playground director	67	55
Policeman	67	55
Railroad conductor	67	55
Mail carrier	66	57
Carpenter	65	58
Automobile repairman	63	59.5
Plumber	63	59.5
Garage mechanic	62	62
Local official of a labor union	62	62
Owner-operator of lunch stand	62	62
Corporal in the regular army	60	64.5
Machine operator in a factory	60	64.5
Barber	59	66
Clerk in a store	58	68
Fisherman who owns his own boat	58	68
Streetcar motorman	58	68
Milk route man	54	71
Restaurant cook	54	71
Truck driver	54	71
Lumberjack	53	73
Filling station attendant	52	74.5
Singer in a night club	52	74.5
Farm hand	50	76
Coal miner	49	77.5
Taxi driver	49	77.5
Railroad section hand	48	79.5
Restaurant waiter	48	79.5
Dock worker	47	81.5
Night watchman	47	81.5
Clothes presser in a laundry	46	83
Soda fountain clerk	45	84
Bartender	44	85.5
Janitor	44	85.5
Share cropper—one who owns no livestock or equipment and does not manage farm	40	87
Garbage collector	35	88
Street sweeper	34	89
Shoe shiner	33	90
Over-all Average Score	69.8	

Moffatt (1972), as a result of an extensive and comprehensive study related to the status of the American public school teacher, was able to generate profiles of the 'typical' or 'average' elementary, secondary, male, and female teacher of 1971-72.

The Elementary Teacher

The typical elementary teacher is a woman, age 27, probably married, with a bachelor's degree and 8 years of teaching experience, 5 of them in the school system where she is now teaching. Chances are 6 in 10 that she has undertaken college study in the past three years, and if so, she has earned 11 semester hours of credit, for an expenditure of $195 from her own funds.

She is one of 25 teachers in her school, whose staff includes four additional nonteaching professionals, and is very likely supervised by a male principal. She has 27 pupils in her class and is required to be at school 36 clock hours a week but has 6 chances in 10 of having a duty free lunch period, most likely 30 minutes long. In addition, she attends 17 faculty meetings in the course of the school year, probably 3/4 of an hour in length each. She devotes about 8 hours a week to school-related duties for which she does not receive compensation and her mean total working week is 45.8 hours. The elementary teacher teaches 181 days during the year and has an additional four nonteaching days of contract, for which the annual salary is $9,052.

Chances are 6 in 10 that the elementary teacher lives within the boundaries of the school system that employs her but less than 3 in 10 that she lives within the attendance area of her school. She is most likely a member of the parent teacher association and more likely than not a member of local, state, and national education associations. Her main reason for becoming a teacher was her desire to work with young people and there is 8 chances in 10 that she would again choose teaching if she had the choice of career to make again. Chances are better than 8 in 10 that she was planning to continue full time teaching in the same school system in the 1971-72 school year.

The Secondary Teacher

The secondary teacher is more likely to be a man than a woman, is age 34, and probably married. He has a bachelor's degree, and there is 1 chance in 3 he also has a higher degree. He has had 7 years of teaching experience, 5 of them in his present school system. Chances are 6's in 10 that he has undertaken college study for credit within the past three years, and if so, he has earned 15 semester hours of credit while expending $577 from his own funds on education costs.

There are 61 teachers and nine other nonteaching professionals on the staff of his school which is headed by a male principal. He teaches 131 pupils a day, an average of 26 per class. Chances are 6 in 10 that he is teaching English, mathematics, science, or social studies. He is required to be at school 36-3/4 hours a week, during which he teaches 26 of the 34 periods in the school schedule, which are probably each about 55 minutes long, and has five unassigned preparation periods. He also probably has a duty-free lunch period, most likely one half hour in length. He attends 14 faculty meetings a year, each of which is probably about an hour long. In all, he spends more than 8 hours a week on school duties for which he is not compensated, and his total mean working week is 51 hours. Like his colleague in elementary school, he teaches 181 days a year, but has an additional five nonteaching days of contract. His annual salary is $9,110.

Like the elementary teacher, the secondary teacher probably lives within the boundaries of his school system and chances are 1 in 10 that he also lives within the attendance area of his school. He is probably a member of his local and state education associations, and there is about a 50-50 chance that he is a member of the National Education Association, the parent-teacher association, and a subject-matter or professional special-interest organization. His two main reasons for becoming a teacher were his desire to work with young people and an interest in a particular subject-matter field. There are 2 chances in 3 that he would choose teaching if he had his career choice to make again, and he is as likely as the elementary teacher to

have planned to continue teaching in the same system in 1971-72.

The Man Teacher

Chances are 3 in 4 that the man teacher is teaching in secondary school and 1 in 10 that he is a senior high teacher. He has a bachelor's degree and eight years of teaching experience, five years with his present school system. Chances are better than 1 in 10 that he has a higher degree and 7 in 10 that he has earned college credits within the past three years amounting to 13 semester hours.

Chances are better than 1 in 10 that his father was an unskilled, semiskilled, or skilled worker and 1 in 3 a businessman or professional. His mother probably graduated from high school, but there is only 1 chance in 5 that she went to college. He is 31 years old, married, and probably has two children. Chances are 11 2 in 10 that the man teacher has a wife who is employed at least part time and 2 in 10 that he is married to a woman who is teaching full time. He and his wife probably own or are buying their home and chances are about even whether they own one or more than one car. He probably supplemented his teaching salary by working during the summer, and there is about a 50-50 chance that he also took on other work in addition to his regular teaching duties during the school year. His total income combined with his wife's amounts to $15,000, of which his teaching salary represents 72 percent.

The man teacher most likely came as an adult to the community where he now lives but probably lived there long enough to feel that he belongs. He is probably a church member, more likely conservative than liberal in his political thinking, and more likely a Democrat than a Republican. It is very likely that he voted in both the primary and the general election in 1970.

There is 1 chance in 3 that he would not prefer to become a teacher and less than 3 chances in 10 that he would *probably* become a teacher if he had the chance to make again.

The Woman Teacher

There are 2 chances in 3 that the woman teacher is teaching in elementary school. If she is a secondary teacher, she is more likely to be teaching English than any other subject. She has a bachelor's degree but only 1 chance in 5 of having a higher degree. Her teaching experience amounts to eight years, five of which have been in her present school system. Chances are 1 in 10 that she has had a break in teaching service, most likely to raise a family. There is a 6 in 10 chance that she has earned a typical 13 semester hours of college credit in the past three years.

Chances are 1-1 2 in 10 that her father was a businessman or professional and less than 3 in 10 that he was an unskilled, semiskilled, or skilled worker. Her mother was probably a high school graduate and chances are 4 in 10 her mother also attended college. She is 37 years old, probably married, and chances are about even whether or not she has two children. The woman teacher has a 37 percent chance of being married to a man with full-time employment, but her husband is probably not a teacher. They probably own or are buying their home and chances are about 50-50 whether they own one or more than one car. Their combined income amounts to $18,710, toward which her teaching salary contributes 52 percent.

Like her male colleague, the woman teacher probably moved to her present community as an adult but has been there long enough to feel she belongs. Like him also, she is probably a church member, more inclined to be conservative than liberal in political philosophy, and more likely to be a Democrat than a Republican. She, too, very probably voted in both the primary and the general election in 1970.

If given the choice to make again, there is a 51 percent chance that she would certainly become a teacher and 30 percent chance that she would probably make this choice.

Reasons for the Occupational Choice

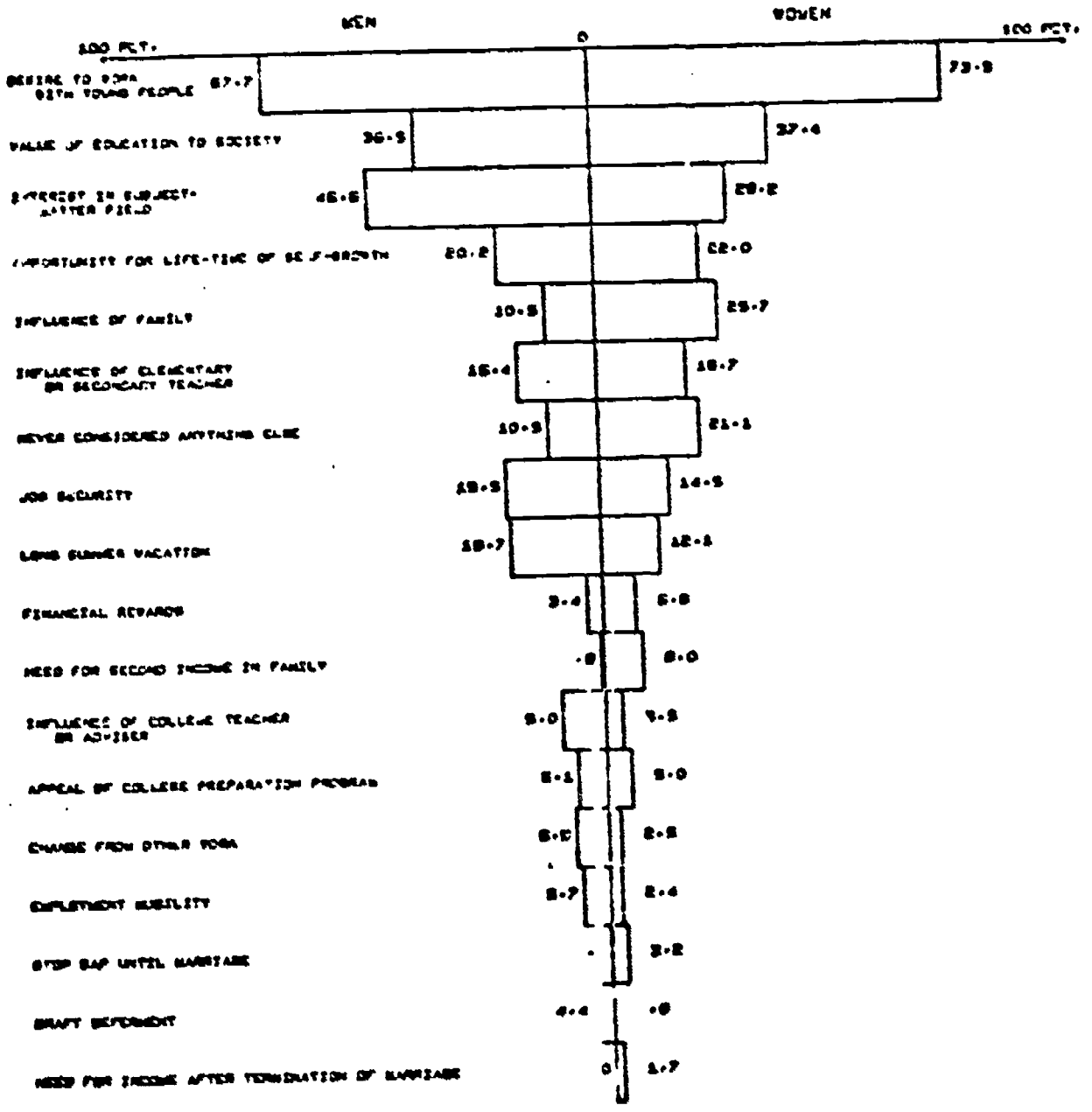
Data from a number of studies documents the reported *reasons* for the occupational choice among related occupational groups of individuals. It is important to note, however, that career development and occupational choice theories are concerned with the *causes* for the choice, which ultimately contribute to the establishment of the more concrete reasons which are usually investigated and reported. Within the context of this study, therefore, the reported reasons given by individuals for choosing the teaching profession should be viewed as the results of the implementation of the self-concept, the matching of the personality orientation with a suitable work environment, and the socialization process affecting each person.

Ryans (1960) found that teachers said they entered the profession because of the public and social service character of teaching, and because of the intellectual nature of the occupation.

Thorndike and Hagan (1960) found that 83.7% of the teachers they surveyed felt the major source of satisfaction in teaching was the contact which they had with young people, which certainly seems to be commensurate with the reasons usually given by teachers for entering the field.

Moffatt (1972), in investigating the reasons for which men and women chose to teach, found the two main reasons to be 1) a desire to work with young people, and 2) the 'value of education to society' (social importance). Moffatt's (1972) total set of findings related to this subject is presented in the following graph.

REASONS FOR WHICH MEN AND WOMEN CHOSE TO TEACH -- PERCENT REPORTING EACH REASON AS ONE OF THREE MAIN REASONS



It is important to recognize that Moffatt's findings parallel many of the factors and determinants asserted to be important within the career development and occupational choice continuums in Part I. The two main reasons given in Moffatt's study by teachers, for example, parallel the theoretical classification for the personality orientation of teachers given in Holland's model.

Mathews and Drabick (1970) reported two factors related to occupational choice as important which are also commensurate with Moffatt's data; specifically that 1) more men than women choose occupations for related rewards (Note on Maffatt's graph the data related to job security, vacation, mobility),and 2) more women than men choose occupations for altruistic reasons (Note on Maffatt's graph the data related to the desire to work with young people, value of education to society, opportunity for life-time growth).

It is also important to note that although the financial rewards of teaching were not felt to be of significant importance to either men or women in choosing teaching, more women than men felt this factor was important. Perry (1972), in a study related to the influence of selected factors on the choice of teaching as a career, also found this situation to be the case. One hypothesis which may be valid in responding to this situation is that teaching is really one of the few professions where women are assurred of earning as much (usually) as men for equal work, although no hard evidence exists to really support this assertion.

Characteristics of Teaching

Manpower Supply and Projected Demand

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (1970), there were an estimated 1,115,000 elementary school (public) teachers working in the Fall of 1970. There were also 934,000 secondary school (public) teachers working in the Fall of 1970.

Simon and Fullam (1970) projected a 1975 demand for 1,053,00 elementary school teachers, and 1,046,000 secondary school teachers. They also projected a 1979 demand for 1,065,000 elementary school teachers and 1,024,000 secondary school teachers, with a continuing downward trend in demand beginning in 1976.

Occupational Characteristics

Murphy (1963), in compiling a manual of 'job facts', presented the following data related to the occupational characteristics of public school teaching:

1) Education and Training Required:

Elementary- Most states require Bachelor's degree & certification

Secondary- Bachelor's degree required in most states; Master's required in some states to maintain certification

2) Opportunity for Advancement:

Elementary- Limited, although salary usually increases with experience

Secondary- Limited, although a better chance exists in the secondary area than in the elementary area to advance to the administrative level, especially for men.

3) Average # of Hours Worked

Elementary- 35-40 per week for 9 mos. per year

Secondary- 40+ per week for 9 mos. per year

4) Earnings (Average Nationwide) : $9,261 (Moffatt, 1972)

Selected Occupational Benefits

Salary : Although the average salary of the public school teacher is not excessively high, the average work year is approximately 185 days, with a two month summer vacation (with pay, if the individual wishes to distribute his/her checks over the entire year).

Sick-Leave Provisions : Most teachers are afforded at least 10 ten days of paid sick-leave (Stinnett, 1968)with additional provisions for 'professional days' and 'personal business days' (frequently with pay).

Security : Latest data indicate that about 85% of the nation's public school teachers have job security of one form or another, contingent only upon 'satisfactory' service (Stinnett, 1968). The most typical form of job security in the teaching profession has traditionally been the tenure system. Job security for public school teachers, therefore, has usually been considered to be high.

Non-Wage Benefits : Two month summer vacation, insurance coverage, retirements plans, medical plans, etc. are usually given to teachers as part of their contractual package.

PART III

The purpose of this section is to synthesize all of the data presented in Parts I and II into Blau's conceptual model for occupational choice. The model will be slightly modified in some areas so as to be more meaningful for the specific occupational group under investigation.

RELATIONSHIP OF PROCESS OF CHOICE AND PROCESS OF SELECTION

OCCUPATIONAL ENTRY

Occupational Choice Is Commensurate With Personality Hierarchy of His Adjustive Orientation

Individual Chooses Occupation Whose Characteristics Will Allow Him To Function In A Role Consistent With His Self-Concept

Preference Hierarchy — Expectancy Hierarchy

Perceiving Individual

Ideal Standards — Realistic Estimates

Selection Agency Practices

I. IMMEDIATE DETERMINANTS: INDIVIDUAL

Reward Value Hierarchy

Male: (1) Social Value of Occupation
(2) Rewards of Position (Economic, Security, Benefits, etc.)

Female: (1) Social Value of Occupation
(2) Influence of Family

Social Role Characteristics

Male: Respected Occupational Role, Secure Position, Middle Class Worke White Collar Worker

Female: Respected Occupational Role, Secure Position, Middle Class Worker, White Collar Worker.

I. IMMEDIATE DETERMINANTS: OCCUPATION

Types & Amounts of Rewards

Altruistic : Extensive

Chance of Advancement:

Elementary - Limited
Secondary - Fair

Average Hours Worked:

Elementary - 35-40 per wee over 9 mos.
Secondary - 40+ per week over 9 mos.

Salary: Average is Approximat $9,261.00 per year fr 1972

Fringe Benefits: Sick Leave, Professional Leave, Personal Leave, etc.

Job Security: High

Male: Respected Occupational Role, Secure Position, Middle Class Worker, White Collar Worker

Female: Respected Occupational Role, Secure Position, Middle Class Worker, White Collar Worker.

Both: Viewed by Society as Professionals in A Marginal Sense Only

Educational Level Required

Elementary: Most States Require Bachelor's Degree & Certification

Secondary: Bachelor's Degree Required By Most States, Master's Required In Some States To Maintain Certification

Salary: Average is Approximat $9,261.00 per year fr 1972

Fringe Benefits: Sick Leave, Professional Leave, Personal Leave, etc.

Job Security: High

Environmental Work Orientation

Social (Supportive) On Holland Scale of Work Environments

II. SOCIOPSYCHOLOGICAL ATTRIBUTES: INDIVIDUAL

Characteristics

Elementary School Teacher:

Woman, 37 years of age, most likely married. Holds B.S., has 8 years of teaching experience.

Secondary School Teacher:

Man, 33 years of age, probably married. Holds B.S., 33% chance that he also holds Master's degree. Has 7 years of teaching experience.

Social Position of Individual

Ranks 34-36 on a scale of 90 'common' occupational positions.

Intelligence and Abilities

Majority of education college students rank at mediocre level in comparison to other non-education

II. SOCIOECONOMIC ORGANIZATION: OCCUPATION

Division of Labor

Public Schools:
Elementary- 1,046,000
Secondary - 1,034,000

Non-Public Schools:
Elementary- 146,000
Secondary - 80,000

Rate of Labor Turnover

Approximately 5% Replacemen Rate per Year

Ranks 54-56 on a scale of 90 'common' occupational positions.

Intelligence and Abilities

Majority of education college students rank at mediocre level in comparison to other non-education students in academic aptitude and achievement.

Orientations to Occupational Life as Evidenced By 3 Main Reasons for Occupational Choice

Male: Desire to Work With Young People: 68%
Value of Education To Society: 37%
Interest in Field: 47%
Job Security: 20%
Summer Vacation: 20%
Influence of Family: 10%

Female: Desire to Work With Young People: 74%
Value of Education to Society: 37%
Interest in Field: 28%
Influence of Family: 26%
Never Considered Other Options: 21%
Job Security: 14%
Summer Vacation: 12%

III. PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT: INDIVIDUAL

Factors Significantly Affecting Socialization Process

Socioeconomic Status & Occupation of Father:

Male: 40% prob. Blue Collar Middle Class
30% prob. Professional Upper-Middle to Middle Class

Female: 45% prob. Professional Upper-Middle to Middle Class
30% prob. Blue Collar Middle Class

III. HISTORICAL CHANGE: OCCUPATIC

Trends in Social Mobility

Early 1900's: 10th in rank of 9
1950's - 1970's: 34th in rank o 90

Changes in Demand

High demand until late 1960's. Demand will begin to decrease i (approximately) 1976 :

1970: 1,115,000 Elementary
934,000 Secondary
1975: 1,033,000 Elementary
1,046,000 Secondary
1979: 1,065,000 Elementary

Urban

Personality Orientation

Primary Personality Mode:
Social (Supportive)

Elementary Teacher's Personality Orientation:

SAI ; r_{sa}=.42, r_{si}=.30, r_{ai}=.34

Secondary Teacher's Personality Orientation:

SAE ; r_{sa}=.42, r_{se}=.54, r_{ae}=.35

General Personality Mode Description:

Individual is Socially Oriented, Prefers Theraputic-Type Roles, Enjoys A 'Safe' Environment, Possesses High Verbal and Interpersonal Skills, Need Configuration of High Affiliation

Specific Modal Description:

Male: Authortarian-Type Personality, Verbally Fluent, Outgoing, Opinionated, Patient, Self-Centered

Female: Self-confident, Self-Assured, Verbally Fluent, Cooperative, Conventional, In Need of More Supervision Than Women in Other Professional Groups

Demand in 1974 largely dependen upon geographical areas; surpl existing in some areas due to
1) increasing # of people hold teaching degrees, and
2) drop in enrollment rate

BIOLOGICAL CONDITIONS

Native Endowment

SOCIAL STRUCTURE

Social Stratification System
Cultural Values and Norms
Demographic Characteristics
Type of Economy
Type of Technology

PHYSICAL CONDITIONS

Resources
Topography
Climate

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